The MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at TOWSON

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A GUIDE FOR STUDENT TEACHING

Prepared by

The Directors, Supervisors,
and Teachers of Training

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FOREWORD

There are three teaching courses offered to all the Towson students. Teaching I is a survey observation course. Two years ago a syllabus (now in the course of revision) was developed as a guide to Introduction to Teaching. Its keynotes are: observation of children in a normal classroom, then comparison by the student observer with his own built-up attitudes toward such work, then new generalizations formulated by the student observer to fit the present type of school. In this course there may be participation in teaching by some students, samplings of teaching. The course is given to all entering students during their first term at school.

Teaching II is another observation-participation course but with more definite preparation for individual teaching on the part of all students and more opportunities for all students to practice the teaching act.

Teaching III is the course or term in which the entire twelve weeks, or a full semester for those entering the three year course in September 1931, is spent by each student in practice centers in two six-weeks' experiences or for the three year students, in two nine-weeks' experiences. All the hours are devoted to the practice of teaching - whether the teaching be done by the student herself, by another student teacher (for there are usually two teachers assigned to a class) or by the training teacher.

This new bulletin - A Guide to Student Teaching - endeavors to formulate for the student some guiding principles for all the factors with which the student must deal when performing the teaching act. It must be remembered, however, that such a series of generalizations is not viciously academic, but is simple and pragmatic, and follows attempts at formulation of principles by the students themselves during their two previous teaching experiences. Our great sin in education generally, all over the country, is that the many classroom teachers are so busy teaching, they fail to educate. The aim in a progressive normal school is to train students to work with the minds, the brains of children--observing, eliminating, and redirecting mental professes. "How minds behave" or "minds in the making" might be a good sub-title for this bulletin.

The present manual is intended for the use of all concerned with the final course in student teaching. Every member of the faculty assists in the supervision of the student while teaching and in planning the content subjects with which she is equipped for her center. Every student takes the course. So large a group can work more effectively if there is some written statement of principles, objectives, and activities to which all may turn as a common point of reference. In the first typing The Guide was the work of the directors, supervisors, and teachers of training. The entire faculty, through a revision committee, is more directly responsible for the first revision, which this second typing represents (Done in summer of 1931). Another year's experience with it will bring it closer to the goal of its representing the point of view of the entire faculty.

The plan of coordination of theory and practice in operation at Towson has largely determined the contents of The Guide. Because units of work are prepared by the students under the direction of the subject matter specialists in the professionalized subject matter courses and later taught by the students in the training centers, the discussion of planning, teaching, and recording, for instance, takes character from the conditions brought about by the coordination plan. Similarly, the cooperation between the normal school faculty and the supervisory and administrative staff in the field has influenced the discussion of the last chapter.

The Guide should serve the desirable end of promoting appreciation for the value and high status of the training teacher and of the student teaching term.

LIDA LEE TALL, Principal

The Maryland State Normal School at Towson
September 1, 1931

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A GUIDE FOR STUDENT TEACHING

CHAPTER I

Principles Underlying the Administration and Content of Student Teaching

The principles which have determined the course in Student-Teaching have been outlined in two divisions: Administration and Content. It is important that such differentation be made in order to be able to distinguish clearly between problems of organization and problems concerned with the materials of instruction. An organization may be perfect and yet fail because it lacks substance. Likewise, rich content may be ineffective because of poor machinery. The ideal, of course, is perfect balance of the two. Checking the administrative plan and the content of the course against the peinciples here proposed should help attain such balance. It is important, however, always to bear in mind that the principles, themselves, are not, in any sense, final. They are presented for purposes of discussion. Their soundness should be put to every available test.

1. Principles Underlying the Administration of Student-Teaching

1. Student-teaching should be the focus of coordination of the whole normal school program. The materials of the courses given at the normal school should function directly in the training centers. The results in the training centers should, in turn, enrich and modify the normal school courses. Theory and practice work hand in hand in the training centers. This principle finds application particularly in the planning and carrying out of units of instruction. (Chapters II, VI, XII).

2. Student-teaching should be so administered that it will be comprehensive in scope. This principle implies that a student should be free from all other normal school requirements during the period of student-teaching in order that he may participate in all activities - school and community - related to a teacher's work (Chapters II, IV).

3. Student-teaching should be so administered as to admit of differentiation. Such differentiation includes length of the student-teaching term, the term or terms in which student-teaching is done, the sequence and kinds of activities undertaken, the types and ages of the children taught, the amount and kind of supervision needed, and the amount and kind of exploration conducted by the student. Flexibility in administration is essential if the responsibility for meeting the needs of individual students is accepted (Chapters II, IV).

4. Student-teaching should be carried on under good normal conditions. Training centers should be selected with great care. Students should be assigned to schools which are well-built, well-equipped, and well-administered. It is important that students should know the best working conditions in order that they may maintain or assist in raising the standards of the schools in which they will later teach (Chapters VIII, IX).

5. There should be a small number of students in any given training center. The value of this is self-evident. The fewer the students at a center, the more responsibility and practice can be given each student though the absolute number with which best results can be secured has not been determined (Chapter II).

6. Teaching should begin as soon as possible after the students come to the training center. Students have had continuous contacts with children since the beginning of their work at the normal school. They come to the centers with plans carefully made. They have had opportunity to visit the center while they were making the plans. They come ready and eager to work. They should be encouraged to begin teaching on the first day (Chapter VI).

7. Student-teaching should be adequately supervised. The supervision should include that of the training-teacher immediately in charge; of the professionalized subject matter instructors, particularly those who have taught the students prior to his student teaching period; of the instructors in education

courses; of the supervisors and directors of student-teaching (Chapter II).

2. Principles Underlying the Content of Student-Teaching

1. Student-teaching should take into consideration the goals and practices of the local school system. The student should become familiar with courses of study, bulletins and all other material issued by the local school administration; should follow the rules and regulations of the school board; should learn to make and keep records according to the forms in use in the school system (Chapters III, V, VI, VIII).

2. Student-teaching should be a fusion of observation, participation, and individual, group, and class teaching. This principle opposes the idea of gradual induction into teaching through isolated sequential steps of observation, participation, and teaching. Instead, these are fused in carrying out any unit of instruction and may vary in order both accorging to the needs of the situation and of the student (Chapter II).

3. Student-teaching should be comprehensive in scope. It should include all possible phases of classroom administration and instruction and of school and community activities. (Chapters II, IV, VI, VIII, IX).

4. Students should have practice in both short and long distance planning and recording. It is highly desirable that students be taught to take a long view ahead in planning. They come to the centers after having had some practice in such long distance planning. Their experience in the training centers will give additional skill as they are able to plan more specifically with the needs of children in mind. In addition, they are taught to plan from day to day upon the basis of records made of the work as it progresses (Chapters II, V, VI).

5. Students should be given practice in analyzing and using such procedures as have resulted from scientific experimentation. The best that modern

science has to offer should be kept before students. Each subject matter specialist should be responsible for circulating any findings in his field which should modify the practice in the centers (Chapters III, XII).

6. Student-teaching should enrich and enlarge the body of principles which the student has started to develop in his other work at the normal school. Desirable as it is to give students many and varied experiences in student-teaching, it is obviously impossible to give him more than a small body of experiences as measured against the size and complexity of the field of teaching. It is, therefore, of the greatest importance that the student take from his teaching experience a working body of principles which will serve him in meeting new situations. By principles here is meant not only principles of education, but also principles peculiar to any given area of human knowledge and, perhaps, most important of all, those principles pertaining to the relations of man to man and of men to the universe which make one's life philosophy (Chapters IV, V, VI, VII, VIII, IX, X, XI, XII, XIII).

7. Student-teaching should close with an analysis and evaluation of its experiences. Such an analysis and evaluation will make it possible for the student to use his experiences in meeting new situations (Chapters X, XII, XIII).

The principles have been stated in the foregoing. In addition, some little amplification has been made in order that a slight background for what is to follow might be provided. While the chapters in which certain principles are particularly elaborated have been indicated, it will be found that most of them operate, either directly or indirectly, in the whole student-teaching situation.

CHAPTER II

The Organization of Student-Teaching

The Towson Normal uses three student teaching fields: The campus, the state, and the city. On the campus there are the nine classes of the elementary school available for practice; in the state, there are 24 classes in 11 schools in 3 counties; in Baltimore City, there are 21 classes in 8 schools. These classes are termed training centers. Each training center is in charge of a training-teacher who is directly responsible for the supervision of the students in his center. The campus training centers are under the general administration and supervision of the principal of the Campus Elementary School, who negotiates with the Principal of the Normal School on all matters affecting the administration and supervision of these centers and their relationships to the Normal School. The county training centers are under the general administration and supervision of the Director of Rural Education and the Supervisor of County Practice. The Director of Rural Education negotiates with county administrative and supervisory officers and with the Principal of the Normal School on all matters affecting the administration and supervision of the county training centers and their relationships with the county systems of education and the Normal School. The Supervisor of County Practice shares with the Director of Rural Education all responsibilities attached to the administration and supervision of the county training centers. The general administration and supervision of the city training centers is under the Director of City Practice and the Instructor and Supervisor of Kindergarten-Primary Education. The Director of City Practice negotiates with the city administrative and supervisory officers and with the Principal of the Normal School on all matters affecting the relationships of the city training centers to the city administrative and supervisory officers and to the Principal of the Normal School. A Supervisor who also gives a course in the Normal called Kindergarten-Primary Education (a course showing integration of various subject matter contents) shares with the Director of City

Practice all responsibilities attached to the supervision of the city training centers. All instructors in the Normal School assist, in so far as their schedules permit, in the supervision of their particular subject matter fields in the training centers and are in close touch with all directors and supervisors of the students while they teach. The coordination of the work of the training centers and the courses given at the normal school is one of the most important policies operating in the training of the student. A Committee on Teacher Training has for its personnel the principal of the Normal School, the two directors of practice, the two supervisors of practice, and the principal of the elementary school, and the instructor who gives the Teaching I course known as Introduction to Teaching. This committee meets once a month or oftener upon call of the principal of the Normal School; its definite function is to plan a permanent continuing functioning of the spirit and work of the coordination and integration principles.

Student-Teaching (Teaching III) is scheduled during the senior (second) year of the Normal School course. There are two other teaching courses given earlier, in the junior year. In the first term, there is Introduction to Teaching, (Teaching I), in which emphasis is placed upon observation. In the second and third terms, there is Junior student teaching (Teaching II), in which emphasis is placed upon small unit teaching. While both of these courses involve some teaching, they do not carry with them so great a degree of responsibility as does Student-Teaching. In the first two courses, the students are in the classroom perhaps an hour at a time, or a morning, or an afternoon, or a week. In the long term of Student-Teaching (Teaching III) they are in the classroom day after day for at least twelve weeks, the City students remaining at the center all day and the County students in the morning with scheduled conferences in the afternoon.

The minimum twelve-week term is divided into two periods of a minimum of six weeks each, in which the students teach in two different centers. Wherever a student shows promise but has been slow in adjustment, there may be three ex-

periences of six weeks or even four. The plan has been that at the end of the second or third term of the junior year, students have chosen their teaching field. City students decide first whether they will teach in the kindergarten-primary or in the intermediate grades, and then choose two grades within one of these fields for student teaching. County students choose from among the kindergarten-primary, the intermediate, and the rural fields and select practice situations in two of these fields. Students also indicate their preference as to the term in which they will begin teaching. With these data in mind, the directors of training immediately assign students, in so far as possible, to the centers of their choice, two or three students being assigned to each center. Thus, students know in their junior year, in which term, grades, and centers they will teach in their senior year.

When the three year course beginning in September 1931 is effected the principle, "the longer the period of training, the less differentiation" will be followed and consequent departure from the plan as outlined in the last paragraph will be made. Details of practice under the three year course will be given in the revised edition of the Guide for 1932-1933.

As soon as the students are assigned, they begin, in addition to their general work in the courses at the Normal School, special preparation for their student teaching experience. On their own initiative they are expected to become thoroughly familiar with the materials for the particular grades in which they are to teach, to visit the centers, to become acquainted with the training teachers, with the children, with the equipment, and with the neighborhood. In addition, special attention is paid in the professionalized subject matter courses to the preparation of units of work to be developed later by the students in the training centers. The steps in the preparation of such units may be outlined as follows:

1. Training-teachers and professionalized subject matter instructors teaching the students during any one term meet in grade conferences for the purpose of selecting topics for units to be prepared for

teaching in any succeeding term.

2. Students visit the training centers for the purpose of discussing their plans with the training-teachers in order that they may gain such knowledge of the children and of the environment as will make the unit to be prepared applicable, in general, to the particular class they will teach.
3. The units are prepared in connection with the appropriate subject matter courses under the direction of the subject matter instructors, the students assigned to and one center working on the same unit.
4. The students carry out the units in the training centers under the direction of the training-teachers, keeping daily records of the work as it progresses.
5. Subject matter instructors who directed the preparation of the units expect to see each unit while it is being carried out through, at least, one visit to the student in his assigned center.
6. Directors and supervisors of student teaching observe students at work, give help to them, conduct conferences, and confer with subject matter specialists.
7. Training teachers and students send records of the unit as carried out and comments to the directors of training who, in turn, confer with the subject matter instructors about the results.
8. Copies of some of the outstanding units and their developed records are filed in the library for study by both faculty and students.

The unit might be termed the major activity. Perhaps an hour or two hours a day may be set aside for it. The training-teacher and the students share in it. Sometimes one takes the responsibility for the teaching, sometimes another. It may be that one student will be responsible for carrying through one phase of the work with one group of children, while the other students are concerned with other groups. This will not be discussed further here since it will be taken up in detail later, but it needs to be mentioned because it is indicative of the cooperative character

of the work at the training centers.

What is done in carrying out the major activity is done with all the other work of the center. The training teacher maps out the work with the students. Subjects that are taught separately, apart from the major activity are allocated among the training-teacher and the students working under his direction. So it is with other class responsibilities, with school activities, and with community activities.

Where does a student start? How much work should he carry? How long should he continue in any one activity? What variety of teaching experiences should he have accomplished before the term is completed? These questions are often asked. To answer them definitely is impossible. What is done depends entirely upon the strengths and needs of the student and the needs of the children at the training center. There is nothing to indicate that it is best for all students to start with a small group of children, or by teaching spelling, or by attending to the ventilation of the room. Nor is there anything to show that the work should be divided equally as to time, nor that every student should teach arithmetic, for instance, for one-third of the time. But there is some reason and some foundation in psychological law in having each student begin with that activity in which he by special aptitude, or special preparation, or both, is most likely to attain success. Similarly, it would seem better to start with something that carries with it the adventure of teaching and let the daily routine of roll books, cleaning up, etc. be worked side by side with the larger responsibilities. Something of the same nature is true of the children to be taught; the needs both of the students and the children should be considered and adaptations made.

As to the amount of work a student should carry, one can only say: No more and no less than he can carry well. How long should be continue in any activity? This is perhaps the most difficult of the three questions. He should not leave it until he feels some satisfaction in his success; he should not stay so long on one piece of work that other experiences will be neglected. This type

of organization calls for constant planning assignments, planning adjustments, and readjustments by the training-teacher and the student in order that each student may get the best and widest experiences with consideration of his needs and those of the children. Intelligent techniques in handling children and subject matter should result. It is a transmuting process.

Suggestions to Students

1. Think through the kinds of contacts you should have during your student-teaching experiences with: The training-teachers, the director and supervisor of practice; the subject matter instructors who visit you; the principal of the Normal School. Try to define your relation as a student-teacher to each.
2. Try to know as many students teaching at other training centers as you can. Exchange ideas and experiences.
3. Check the preparation you made beforehand for teaching in your present center. Try to fill in the gaps.
4. Compare this chapter with Chapter I. Indicate the parts of the present chapter which are applications of the principles given in Chapter I.

CHAPTER III

Aims, Objectives, and Outcomes

The need for some agreement in the use of the terms, aims, objectives, and outcomes, has long been felt. Mead, evidently feeling this need, defined the terms in Supervised Student Teaching.[1] Both his definition of these terms and his point of view as to their relationship are, with some modification of the use of the words "aim", and "outcomes" accepted here. They can best be given in his own words:

> "A brief explanation of terminology is needed in a consideration of objectives, aims, and outcomes. Throughout this book the term aims will be used to indicate the very broad and comprehensive purposes of an entire educational system,e.g., the conception of culture in the educational system of the United States, or the purposes of a state system to improve moral character. The term objectives will be employed in outlining those purposes sought by an educational institution. For example, a large university purposes to prepare teachers, physicians, lawyers, nurses, and to improve the general education of its students; a small high school seeks to equip its pupils for better citizenship and for entrance into college; an elementary school attempts to equip its pupils with the common body of the habits most used by society. The term outcomes will be used to mean those purposes sought by individual workers. For example, a supervisor of student-teaching seeks to have the student-teachers in arithmetic acquire a mastery of techniques, outcomes of the teaching of arithmetic, and management factors in the schoolroom; also the student teacher must know how to construct and use tests and examinations in arithmetic. These are groups of outcomes; a skill like devising and using a drill in arithmetic would be a single outcome."[1]

The illustrations used by Mead in the above will serve to clarify the present use of the terms. Exception is made in the case of the term aim to include if possible the purposes of a group which might approach to some degree an international point of view.

A broader definition of these terms is indicated in the following statement of social relationships:

> "The aims are great social conceptions, covering large masses of people. The objectives of the school are the goals which it sets for attainment in order that it may contribute to the effecting of the aims. These are still

[1]Mead, Arthur R. Supervised Student Teaching, p. 20. Johnson Publishing Co., Richmond, Atlanta, Dallas, New York, Chicago, 1930.

social conceptions, but they have been changed by administrative limitations. Within these boundaries the teacher must seek to make psychological changes in the children taught, and the psychological changes sought are his outcomes."[1]

No doubt there are other words than aims, objectives, and outcomes which might serve the purpose equally well, but since the idea back of their selection is a good one, and since the need for some accepted terminology is very great, it seems best to use the terms in the way Mead suggests. If the above is accepted, the problem in relation to Student-Teaching for the present purpose may be defined as follows:

What should be the outcomes to the student from his teaching experience in the training centers of the Maryland State Normal School at Towson in order that such outcomes further for him:

1. The objectives of the Maryland State Normal School at Towson?
2. The aims of the public school systems of Maryland and Baltimore?
3. The aims of the most representative group of educators in the United States?
4. The aims of the most representative international group of educators?

No perfect agreement of outcomes, objectives, and aims for these several educational groups is believed possible. First, attempts to define aims by any group larger than a state have been fragmentary and not truly representative. Furthermore, the idea that nations might work together on universal problems of social betterment is a product of the present century and, as such, is far too young to have borne much fruit. How differently the purposes of education are viewed by the various governments of the world has been expressed by Professor George S. Counts in his enumeration of such purposes and his selection of type civilizations which have used education as instruments of such purposes:

Social Control - Primitive Peoples
Self-Conscious Nationalism - Fascist Italy and Japan

[1] Ibid, pp. 23, 24

Imperialism - Philippines, Posen, and Georgia
Class Domination - Nineteenth Century Prussia and England
Individual Success - United States
General Enlightenment - Denmark
Social Revolution - Russia[1]

Professor L. L. Kandel similarly voices the great diversity of aims among the nations of the world and at the same time decries our own lack of national aim:

> "In France the aim of education is to secure the citizen loyal to republican principles and imbued with an appreciation of her national culture; Germany looks for the self-reliant, resourceful citizen, active and initiating, and loyal to the principles of the new democracy; England aims to develop the character and personality of the individual on the Platonic theory that if the individual is properly educated, the welfare of the state is assured; Russian education is directed to the productive of loyal Communists, and Italian, of loyal Fascists. In each country the aim of the state appears to be clear and education is adjusted to that aim. The time has come when education in the United States must become more self-conscious than it has been. The one enduring aim that has persisted since the Revolution, equality of opportunity, is not an adequate guide for the development of a national system of education. Nor can it be claimed that the other aim, the development of "Republican Machines" has been satisfactorily met. There has, particularly during and since the War, been much talk of Americanization, especially of the immigrant, but true Americanization, whether of the immigrant or of the citizen is not likely to be achieved until there is a better conception of what is meant by Americanism and the fundamental principles underlying American society. Until that is achieved American education is likely to be at the beck and call of new theories, changing devices, and uncertain objectives."[2]

The thought of Counts and Kandel indicates how very far from the present is the day when the nations will be united by a common aim for the education of their peoples. The work that such men as Counts and Kandel and their co-workers in the International Institute are doing to bring about contacts among those working in education must eventually bring about such common purpose. Perhaps study of the educational philosophies of the nations set forth in the 1929 Yearbook of the International Institute will leave a residual which can be accepted by all as an aim however far removed from it current practice may be.

[1]Counts, George. in course, Education and Nationalism, given at Teachers College, Columbia University, Summer, 1930.

[2]Kandel, L. L. "The State and Education in Europe", Teachers College Record, Vol. XXXI, No. 8, May, 1930, p. 732.

The closest attempt at an expression of what might be termed an international aim of education which thus far has been made is found in the proceedings of the fifth world conference of The New Education Fellowship held at Elsinore, Denmark, in August, 1929. The following quotations are significant:

> "Childhood, both as an actual period of living, and as a period in which the foundations of a sane and useful adulthood are laid, is but imperfectly understood. It is being increasingly realized that each individual is essentially creative as well as receptive and cooperative. By the combined efforts of all those who are approaching the problems of education in this faith, it is hoped that the way to release to constructive ends, the powers latent in every human being, may be discovered.
>
> The curriculum should provide direct contact with life situations, allowing for self-expression through activity. It should meet at every stage the physical, emotional, mental and spiritual needs of the child's developing nature. It should introduce him to the cultural heritage of the race and equip him with the fundamental knowledge necessary to modern social life. The child should be regarded as an individual capable of unique development and yet be prepared by social enterprises to take his place in the community. Discipline which is rigid and compulsive should be replaced by the development of the sense of initiative and responsibility, through which self-discipline is attained.
>
> Education, scientifically founded and creatively directed, can lead to the establishment of a world commonwealth free from the evils of wasteful competition and from the prejudices, fears, and frustrations that are the inevitable outcome of an insecure and chaotic civilization. The cooperation of parents and teachers can liberate the children from the trammels of outworn convention and enable them to take their place as constructive citizens in a swiftly changing age."[1]

Education in harmony with the needs of child nature, respect for individuality, yet developing social responsibility, the use of scientific findings, the forward look in this rapidly changing age to a better civilization - these are the ideals animating the philosophy expressed by this internationally-minded group. Can every nation accept them? In time, yes. Meanwhile there are thinkers in every country who have broken away from tradition. Wherever one meets them - England, Russia, Germany, Denmark, France, America - national barriers drop away and one is conscious of a world fellowship, an intellectual and emotional bond, which brings courage for the future.

[1] Towards a New Education, A Record and Synthesis of the Discussions on the New Psychology and the Curriculum, at the Fifth World Conference of the New Education Fellowship held at Elsinore, Denmark, in August 1929. Edited for the N. E. F. by William Boyd, assisted by M. M. Mackenzie with an Introduction by Sir Michael Sadler, pp. 469, 470

Does the United States have a national aim? Kandel says that the one enduring aim, equality of opportunity, is not an adequate guide for the development of a national system of education. He feels keenly the need of a better conception "of what is meant by Americanism and the fundamental principles underlying American Society." "Until that is achieved," he concludes, "American education is likely to be at the beck and call of new theories, changing devices and uncertain objectives."

The instability of American education that Kandel deplores would rapidly disappear if the interpretation of the unique function attributed to it by Dean Russell were generally accepted. In "The Educational Paradox: An American Solution,"[1] Dean Russell begins by stating the paradox that he has learned is characteristic of all education; i.e., that it seeks to train youth "to rule and to be ruled, to lead and to follow." He goes on to show that the age-old method of resolving the paradox was accomplished through reinforcing class cleavage, by holding the masses in subjection through superstition and fear, and by assigning leadership to a military or ecclesiastical aristocracy. He contrasts with this the American method of resolving the paradox through aiming to develop the ability of every individual to lead and to follow, to create the leadership of the expert, and to incite the individual to voluntary subjection to such leadership.

A few lines from the article particularly forcible in their expression of principle and aim are quoted:

> "When we speak of leaders we are not thinking of an aristocratic class, but rather of experts capable of giving a particular service."
>
> "And just as in the old world the schools have been used to attain their ideal of docile, obedient subjects of a monarchical state, so our schools are striving to train citizens who will voluntarily subject themselves to expert leadership in a democratic society."
>
> "We have no schools set apart for leaders; all our schools are designed to help each student make the most of himself, to help him to follow wisely and to lead effectively."

[1]Russell, James Earl. "The Educational Paradox: An American Solution." Journal of Adult Education, No. 3, June 1929, pp. 237-245.

It is difficult to conceive of a national aim more inspiring in its challenge to youth, in its hope for the future, and in its fundamental conception of the principle of democracy than the aim thus expressed by Dean Russell. It is accepted here as the national ideal toward which all subordinate aims should lead. "To train citizens who will voluntarily subject themselves to expert leadership in a democratic society,.....to help each student to make the most of himself, to help him to follow wisely and to lead effectively" - it is a worthy aim.

Meanwhile, the most generally accepted nation-wide expression of aims is found in the well-known "seven cardinal principles" of the National Education Association:

1. Health
2. Command of the fundamental processes
3. Worthy home membership
4. Vocation
5. Citizenship
6. Worthy use of leisure
7. Ethical character

They are broad in scope, but if all the educational systems of the United States were to set up their aims in these terms, defining them more concretely in terms of their environmental conditions and needs, progress would be inevitable. It is interesting to note that both the State Department of Education of Maryland and the Baltimore City Administration have done just that.

The effort to harmonize state aims with national aims is found in the manual of high school administration issued by the State Department of Education in Maryland in the following:

> "In our schools and colleges we should now begin to approach the solution of our problems, as far as possible, in the light of present-day knowledge by making first a scientific determination of the objectives toward which we are working. When we actually know what our schools are for and just what their products should be, then we shall be able to answer the important question: What is the function of the high school? Should it prepare for college or for life?
>
> Probably the best statement of the objectives of the high school has been made by the Committee of the N. E. A. on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.
>
> .....This commission regards the following as the main objectives of education:

1. Health
2. Command of fundamental processes
3. Worthy home membership
4. Vocation
5. Citizenship
6. Worthy use of leisure
7. Ethical character

The objectives outlines above apply to education as a whole - elementary, secondary, and higher. It is the purpose of this section to consider specifically the role of secondary education in achieving each of these objectives."[1]

Similarly, the circular sent out by the Baltimore Board of Superintendents in 1926 setting forth its plans for a three year period states its position with reference to the "seven cardinal principles" as follows:

"The objectives of education as approved by the National Education Association are accepted by educational systems throughout the United States. The Baltimore City Administration adheres to these aims and in addition has certain definite objectives which it has set up to be accomplished within a three year period."

Since the work of the Normal School at Towson is directed specifically toward the education of elementary teachers, it is of particular importance that the aims of the state and city in their elementary program be kept in mind. These were formulated by the superintendent and supervisor of elementary instruction for the State in the report for the year 1927 as follows:

I. To encourage higher standards for evaluating the strength of teachers of a county:
   1. By developing the outstanding teachers
   2. By developing individual talents, originality, executive ability, particular teaching aptitudes
   3. By emphasizing purposes and principles rather than devices and methods

II. To further stimulate improvement in reading instruction:
   1. By giving State-wide tests in fall and spring in Grades 2-7
   2. By assisting the counties in a careful diagnosis of results, and a practical type of corrective work
   3. By making available a comparison of test results in the counties

III. To promote continued progress toward attaining the objectives of the preceding years by studying each county with respect to:
   1. Achievement of the Three R's
   2. Course of study making and revision
   3. Quality of teachers' meetings
   4. Teachers' preparation for their daily work
   5. Use of group schedule in one-teacher schools
   6. Methods for reducing excessive number of over-age pupils
   7. Organization of parent-teacher associations

[1] Aims and Purposes of the Secondary School, Standards for Maryland County High School Administration. Revised. State Dept. of Education, Balto. Md. pp. 7, 8

IV. To keep in close touch with supervision in the counties:
1. By visiting schools with the supervisors
2. By attending teachers' meetings conducted by supervisors
3. By studying the annual reports of supervisors
4. By planning for State-wide and sectional meetings of supervisors
5. By furthering the use of the Maryland School Bulletins

V. To prepare for publication the following material as an aid to teaching and supervision:
1. Sidelights on the Supervision of Primary Grades (excerpts from the annual reports of eight supervisors who supervise primary grades only)
2. Tentative Goals in Geography for the Elementary Grades
3. History Tests for fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh grade pupils (the tests are based on the bulletin, "Tentative Goals in History")
4. Excerpts from the annual reports of county supervisors (this material will be mimeographed and discussed at a supervisors' conference)[1]

Similarly, for the city, the superintendents and supervisors of elementary education set forth their aims for the elementary school in the report for the year 1929:

"1. Continued revision of the course of study for kindergarten-primary grades, to be conducted by committees comprising persons of responsibility in the school system as well as representatives from the Johns Hopkins University and other educational centers in the city, headed by one member of the supervisory force, the curriculum materials thus developed to be evaluated through try-out in the curriculum study centers.

2. Revision and amplification of courses of study in geography and history for intermediate grades.

3. Development of the new science program through the use of the new course of study in science for grades 4, 5, and 6 in a series of demonstration lessons.

4. Further studies in the coordination of English and the content subjects.

5. Continuation of after-school demonstration courses, focusing, in the intermediate grades, on the teaching of science and constructive English and including a series of demonstrations to cover the activities' program of platoon schools.

6. Continuation of after-school demonstration courses in the primary grades and the development of curriculum material from slow-moving and rapidly moving classes in each grade; in the courses for kindergarten teachers, the study of children from the aspect of behavior reaction.

7. Initiation of a program of educational guidance for a limited number of elementary schools.

8. The inauguration of an elementary course on woodwork to meet the need of demonstration teachers and practice teachers engaged in activities' work in the primary grades for instruction in the technique of handling tools and materials.

[1] Sixty-First Annual Report, State Board of Education of Maryland, 1927, pp. 240, 241.

9. Introduction of new equipment especially adapted to the learning needs and abilities of children of low normal mentality of the first grades, such as
   a. Large equipment similar to that in kindergartens.
   b. Attractice picture books containing a minimum of reading material
   c. Sets of small preprimers employing a carefully chosen limited vocabulary."[1]

Turning from the broader aims - international, national, state, city - to the more specific objectives of the school, the catalogue statement serves well as a guide:

> "The dominant objective of the Maryland State Normal School is the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools of the public school system.... To graduate as a teacher for the elementary schools indicates a high professional and academic outlook as well as ability for social and civic leadership."[2]

The objective is simply stated. If student teaching is to help further, it should do all that it can to prepare teachers for elementary public schools. Such preparation should stress professional and academic outlook and social and civic leadership.

In the annual report of the State Board of Education for the year 1927 the Principal of the Normal School states the objectives of the school more specifically:

I. OBJECTIVES OF SCHOOL: To induct students into an undetstanding of the teaching art and the learning processes of children, and to have all departments of the normal school unify their work to this end.

1. In determining procedures, a continuing reorganization of the following four factors is always to be considered from the basis of new discoveries about the child and how he learns, and of the materials his social, industrial, oconomic, and political environments afford him as a medium through which he works to secure an education:
   a. The source and quality of supply from which students are drawn
   b. The adaptation of the curriculum to the students' calibre and to a modern educational program
   c. The orientation of students through the use of the laboratory - the Campus Elementary School and the affiliated training centers
   d. The field to which the graduates go and its evaluation of their service

2. For 1927-28, special emphasis will be placed upon the following:
   a. Improving the quality of students admitted to and retained in the school
   b. Providing contacts for professionalized subject matter instructors

[1]One Hundredth Annual Report of the Board of School Commissioners of Baltimore City for the Year 1929, p. 137

[2]Announcement, 1930-31. The Maryland State Normal School at Towson, p. 28

to influence the elementary school and to observe the students as they use and adjust to children's needs and interests units of work developed in the several departments

c. Making the work in the Campus Elementary School more effective by the service to be rendered by two additional assisting staff members and the assistant in the tests and measurements department

d. Experimenting with a new music course for students to be especially trained to teach music in elementary schools in addition to their general training

e. Studying results of the testing service given to the high schools in the State during the past year

f. Undertaking research of such problems as the following:
   - Effect of test-determined instruction
   - Effect of week-end absence from dormitory on student progress
   - Relation of number of organizations to which a student belongs to her progress
   - Relation between ability and choice of kindergarten-primary or grammar grade work

g. Work of the Scholarship Committee

h. Follow-up graduates to learn:
   (1) Effect on teaching ability of not beginning to teach immediately after graduation because of marriage, illness, or inability to obtain a position
   (2) Opinion of supervisor and principal of teaching ability
   (3) Opinion of the student himself about his in-service adaptability (home-coming day in October)

i. The enrollment campaign

Much of the philosophy of the school is expressed in these objectives:- Consideration of the needs of students, the appreciation of psychological and economic determinants of education, a feeling for unity, an effort to harmonize the work of the school with the aims and needs of the field - are all there.

It remains to make the desired outcomes of student-teaching contribute to all of the aims and objectives - international, national, state, city, school - set forth in the preceding. To work in harmony with the broad aims of those looking toward world fellowship, student-teaching will further the power of students to develop children in harmony with their special aptitudes, to cultivate in them social responsibility, to give them a scientific attitude and to help make them participate in a better world fellowship. If the national ideal as stated by Dean Russell is to guide the work, student-teaching will do its share in helping each student not only to make the most of himself, to help him to follow wisely

[1]Sixty-First Annual Report, State Board of Education of Maryland, 1927, pp. 251, 252.

and to lead effectively, but to have him develop the ability to help each child to the same goal. Since the city and state systems stress "the seven cardinal principles" student-teaching should again further these aims by preparing teachers aware of their significance and able to make them function in the lives of children. More specifically, if the purposes of the state in elementary education are to be furthered, students will be trained to emphasize purposes and principles rather than device and methods, to take cognizance of children's individual needs, to teach reading effectively, to plan efficiently, to participate in faculty meetings, and to cooperate in the organization of parent-teacher associations. The statement of the objectives of the normal school by the Principal indicates how closely the work of the school follows in its broad conceptions the thought of the administrative and supervisory staff in the field. In carrying out the aims of the latter, student-teaching will carry out the objectives of the school.

Such outcomes can be reached in several ways but certainly, the student must begin to build up for himself the development of certain skills and habits in class, school, and community activities; and at the same time, he should develop a body of principles out of his student-teaching experiences that will enable him to meet new situations intelligently. Discussion of these outcomes furnishes the main body of the content of The Guide.

Suggestions for Students

1. Read the references from which quotations have been made.

2. Formulate in your own words what would express for you the aim of American education.

3. Study the current reports of the Maryland State Board of Education and the Baltimore Board of Education. From the nature of the topics treated, note the extent to which in practice the "seven cardinal principles" are being carried forward.

4. Formulate the outcomes of student teaching which you desire for yourself.

5. In planning your work - large units and daily plans - check the specific outcomes you hope to reach against the large aims, objectives, and outcomes indicated in this chapter.

References

Announcement, 1930-31, The Maryland State Normal School at Towson, p. 28

Counts, George S. Outline of Course, Education and Nationalism, given at Teachers College, Columbia University, Summer, 1930

Counts, George S. The American Road to Culture. John Day Co. 1930

Kandel, L. L. "The State and Education in Europe", Teachers College Record, Vol. XXXI, No. 8, May 1930, p. 732

Mead, Arthur R. Supervised Student Teaching, p. 20. Johnson Publishing Co., Richmond, Atlanta, Dallas, New York, Chicago, 1930

One Hundredth Annual Report of the Board of Education, Baltimore, 1929

Russell, James Earl. "The Educational Paradox: An American Solution", Journal of Adult Education, No. 3, June 1929, pp. 237-245

Sixty-First Annual Report, State Board of Education of Maryland, 1927, pp. 240, 241, 251, 252

Towards a New Education, A Record and Synthesis of the Discussions on the New Psychology and the Curriculum at the Fifth World Conference of the New Education Fellowship held at Elsinore, Denmark, in August 1929. Edited for the N. E. F. by William Boyd, assisted by M. M. Mackenzie with an Introduction by Sir Michael Sadler, pp. 469, 470

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CHAPTER IV

Student-Teaching Activities

It is the purpose of this chapter to set forth a simple analysis of the activities of the student teacher. While the student teacher has certain responsibilities peculiar to his position as a student in a school system, if the outcome of well rounded preparation for teaching is to be realized, the activities of student-teaching will include all the activities of the regularly appointed teacher. The analysis here will be made from this point of view.

In brief, the teacher:

I. Studies children

II. Plans, teaches, and records necessary data for individual children

III. Grows in power to apply principles

IV. Cares for routine

V. Cooperates in school activities

VI. Cooperates in community activities

VII. Continuously develops his own fitness for teaching

These outcomes will be treated further in detail in succeeding chapters. The classification is offered in order that the broad and comprehensive nature of the teacher's work may be held clearly in mind. It must be remembered, however, that the teacher's work does not easily resolve itself into elements. At any time in the school day, the activity under way may cross section all of the elements of the above classification. Teaching, like life, is at any moment so bound up with the experiences of the present, the past, and the future, that analysis is very difficult. It is essential to have some form of classification, however, for purposes of thinking through the problems involved in the teacher's work.

Details have been omitted here purposely, because it is desired to stress the fundamental bigness of the task. But details, too, are important. Many detailed analyses of the work of the teacher have been made. The most comprehensive

is the Check-List of Teachers' Activities by Charters and Waples. In it, 1001 activities of the teacher are listed.[1] Mead gives lists by Gray and Armentrout and discusses the activities of student-teaching in detail.[2] These lists are of value for reference and checking, to note whether or not any important items are being omitted from the student's training.

The best work will be accomplished, however, not by fastening attention meticulously upon minor details but by focusing upon the aims, objectives, and outcomes to be accomplished within the scope of the broader divisions of the work, such as those mentioned on the preceding page. This is particularly true in beginning teaching. Later, as thinking in the large becomes clearer and more definite, more attention will be given to fineness of detail. The movement is from the large to the small, and not, as is often the case, the other way around.

Because of the limited time for student teaching, important experiences will, of necessity, be omitted. In each student-teaching term there are certain experiences which can be had at no other time. For instance, only the students who teach in the first term can participate in the opening of school; only those teaching in the third term can participate in the closing of school; those teaching in the second term can have neither experience. Again, those teaching in the first term have the Thanksgiving experience; those teaching in the second term, Christmas; those in the third term, Easter. Whenever experiences peculiar to any one term occur they should be capitalized in such a way that the student will set standards for similar experiences which will occur in his teaching career. While all possible experiences should be given a student, if student-teaching is conducted in such a way that the student will constantly develop principles, absence of certain experiences will not handicap the student too seriously.

[1]Charters, W.W. and Waples, Douglas. "Check List of Teachers' Activities". Reprinted from The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, 1928

[2]Mead, A. R. Supervised Student Teaching, Chapters X and XI

Suggestions to Students

1. Make an inventory of your student-teaching activities. Check it against the Charters and Waples Check-List and the lists given by Mead. Try to get teaching experiences which you seem to be missing.

2. Classify your activities according to the five divisions given in this chapter.

3. Consider the importance of the activities to the children; to yourself in the light of the outcomes which you have set yourself.

References

Charters, W. W., and Waples, Douglas. "Check List of Teachers' Activities". Reprinted from The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, 1928

Mead, A. R. Supervised Student Teaching, Chapters X and XI

CHAPTER V

Studying Children

To teach children, one must know children. More than a century ago, Rousseau said, "Study your child, for assuredly you do not know him," These words of Rousseau have lived, for they express forcibly a fundamental truth. They offer the key to all true teaching.

Rousseau grasped the significance of childhood; he saw the need for the study of children, but he could not point out the road. All the ways and means of coming into a knowledge of childhood still needed to be found. Science has not yet turned its searchlight upon human nature. It remained for the century that followed to produce a method for collecting the data of human behavior, and from these to draw conclusions of practical worth. Such development of scientific psychology was necessary before the words of Rousseau could be put into practice.

Various methods of studying children have been tried since the time of Rousseau. Records like those of Shinn[1] giving details of direct observation, and others by Preyer [2] and Sully[3] giving details of their lives as individual children, have been kept. Stores of information about children have been gathered through the questionnaire method of G. Stanley Hall[4] and his followers. Most of these biographies give only the adult point of view for those that are mere memories of childhood, nevertheless they led the way because they emphasize a true technique of child study.

1. Shinn, M. W. The Biography of a Baby, Houghton Mifflin, 1900
2. Preyer, William: Senses and the Will, D. Appleton and Company, N. Y.
3. Sully, James S. Children's Ways, D. Appleton and Company, N. Y.
4. Hall, G. Stanley: Contents of Children's Minds, A. S. Barnes Company, N. Y. 1893

Trained observers at children's institutes, like those at Yale and The Johns Hopkins University, have collected and studied the data they have gathered. Records of the performances of children in intelligence tests and standard achievement tests have given facts about child growth. All of these methods have their own strengths and weaknesses, but each has contributed something to the knowledge of child nature.

Practically every school system in Maryland today has collected data which, when studied, yield valuable additions to our knowledge of child growth. There are records available which give such facts as age, time in school, health condition, scholarship record in previous grades, standard test results, and in many cases, intelligence status. These records give the foundation facts which must be taken into consideration if teaching is to proceed intelligently. It is from these facts that the desired outcomes, both for the class as a whole and for the children composing the class,are set.

One of the early efforts of a student teacher in his work at the training center should be directed to a study of children, making use of all such records as the above. He should try to identify the child with the record. It is often valuable to the student to chart the information on cards for his own use. These charts make it possible for him always to have important information about the children at hand. Gradually as he consults the records and uses the charts which he has made, facts about the children become part of his background in working with them.

While the study of the above records gives basic information, there is an intimate human knowledge of the children which the study of these records cannot give. All the life of the classroom affords opportunities to the teacher for learning to know his children. Their responses in class exericses, their comments

before school, at recess, during the major activities' period, or on field trips are rich in the detail that the observant teacher will capitalize in his teaching. The actual products of the children - their attempts in writing, in art, or in construction - reveal the tendencies, aptitudes, and needs upon which the teacher builds. Every teacher has such details as the above in mind and uses them in his teaching.

Records can be kept in many ways. One most effective way is the jotting during the day of any significant thing noted about any child. One might wish to note, for future reference, a child's worthwhile questions about which further information must be supplied in order to continue to stimulate his interest. Evidence that a fourth grade child was not sure of the product of six seven's, might occur in a work period. Surely the need should be noted so that additional specific practice can be provided as well as the immediate help that is likely to be given. Records of unusual display of temper, of fear, or of fine reaction to responsibility would undoubtedly serve as valuable data for later reference, particularly in schools in which children come in contact with many different teachers throughout their school histories. At first sight, those not used to such note-taking usually think that it must be an interference with teaching. The contrary is quite true. It is part and parcel of teaching. The habit of taking such notes, if it is made part of a teacher's training, can become just as much part of teaching technique as anything that is done in the classroom. In a very little while, a high degree of skill both in selecting the significant and in recording it is developed. One of the training teachers has tried entering these notes at the end of each day upon letter-sized sheets of paper - one for each child - ruled in five columns for the days of the week and four rows for the weeks of a month, one such sheet constituting jottings about one child for one month. In this way brief items about all the children in the class are recorded and dated from time to time in a form easy to read and

significant in the trends they quickly reveal. It is obvious that lack of entries upon any child's paper may be often as significant as entries. In fact, one of the greatest services that can accrue from student teaching, not only to the particular centers in which students are working but to the whole field of child psychology, is the gathering of such data about children as is here suggested.

One simple mechanical matter deserves attention; i.e., the filing of records of children. There should be a folder for every child in which all jottings, all records of a more permanent type, and occasional samples of work should be kept. It is highly desirable to use standard size materials (card index envelopes and commercial size letter paper and filing cards) because they are cheaper and because they can be fitted into standard files. Soon after new students are assigned to a center they should begin their study of these folders. If such folders could be kept systematically year by year and studied throughout a child's school career, the whole problem of his guidance would be greatly simplified.

One of the most significant outcomes of a student's teaching period should be the beginning of the formation of the habit of studying children and keeping records of this study. The profession of medicine has long recognized the record as thefoundatiion for the treatment of a patient. No physician today would attempt to give medical advice to a patient without, first, getting the history of the case. Similarly, no teacher today should attempt to teach a child without getting as much of the history of each case as is available.

Suggestions to Students

1. Work out some plans of your own for utilizing the data on the regular school record cards.

2. Include in your notes the jottings you make about children while observing and while teaching. Of what value are these notes in your future relations to children? What are your greatest difficulties in handling children?

3. Study the folder of some child. Make note of any questions about him that come to your mind. Observe him intensively for an hour. Are your questions answered? Analyze your findings.

4. Read An Inventory of the Habits of Children from Two to Five Years by Ruth Andrus, for suggestions about record keeping.

References

Andrus, Ruth. An Inventory of the Habits of Children ffom Two toFive Years of Age. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928.

Zachary, Caroline B. Personality Adjustment.

CHAPTER VI

Planning, Teaching, and Recording

I. Planning for Large Outcomes

The power of the plan and the strength of the work which it produces are alike dependent upon the force of the original idea, the imaged something that is to be brought to pass. Sometimes, it is true that new light comes as the work progresses and the final results are greater than the original conception, but it is equally true that without a sound and challenging purpose in the beginning, no work of any lasting worth has ever been accomplished. The teacher striving to make changes in human behavior can build no better than he is able to see large purposes clearly. In determining his outcomes for any particular unit of work, the teacher needs first to question the degree to which they further - in ever so small a way, perhaps - the objectives of his school and of the state or city system in which he works, and the aims which he has come to accept as embodying the best ultimate values. A student-teacher needs to have in mind the objectives of the particular school to which he is assigned, its program for the year, its special emphasis and needs, and the objectives of the particular county or city in which the training center is located. But he must think even more widely, into the far reaches of aims nation-wide and world-wide.

In planning for certain definite outcomes to children from any unit of work, the teacher must provide for information, skills, habits, and also for the acquisition of certain principles which will help the children meet new experiences in our rapidly changing world.

The principles which any learning experience help to develop are those large conceptions which bring order out of a chaotic world. Individuals come slowly into an understanding of them. "The earth is very large" is a simple principle, but all life is different to him to whom "large" expresses actual content in terms of days spent in traveling from one point to another, or of changes

of climate experienced in the different zones of the earth than to him whose experiences, actual or vicarious, are bounded by the confines of his home environment.

The product of a group of individuals working cooperatively is greater than the sum of the products of the same individuals working separately. One who studies the history of the Industrial Revolution and who reflects upon it should come into an understanding of the principle of group effort, as well as into further mastery of the habit of weighing evidence, and of searching authentic sources. A study of the Delmarvan peninsula should promote among other ideas, an understanding of the relation of agricultural areas to markets. Such a study should likewise promote the mastery of certain techniques of map study, transportation routes, Interstate Commerce Commission facts, etc. Having once understood such a principle, one is the possessor of the power that comes only to those to whom all life is a gradual revelation of its meaning.

How are the principles of most worth to be determined? They will be evolved in many ways by many minds.[1 and 2] In planning units of instruction the teacher selects those principles which the new experiences will best serve to develop.

There is adventure in teaching when one thinks of his immediate plan in terms of its contribution to an ever-continuous development. The teacher is not working in isolation in his own classroom. He is part of something as vast as the farthest stretches of his thinking.

[1]Craig, C.S. Tentative Course of Study in Elementary Science for Grades V and VI. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1927

[2]Billings. Generalizations in Social Studies. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College

II. Making a Long-Term Plan

Just how the human mind works in planning is difficult to say. Perhaps there are as many ways as there are human minds, but there is always exploration, always something of trial and error before the plan begins to take form. In general, decision is made as to the unit of instruction to be planned. The topic of the unit will, in most cases, under public school conditions, be selected from a course of study.

Depending upon the degree of familiarity with the materials involved, the teacher will think of some big conceptions which should be the outcomes of the work. Likewise, he will think of some of the habits and skills which the experience will help form. All of this is tentative and hypothetical. He must know the subject matter involved before he can appreciate its possibilities. Merely having read and noted information is insufficient. The teacher must have mastered the material to the uttermost limits of his ability and time. His knowledge must go beyond the boundaries of his particular unit. In teaching a unit of study of the Pueblo Indians a teacher must control as much detailed knowledge as possible concerning the tribes and their environment, but in addition he must also control knowledge of other Indian groups, must have visited the National History Museum in Washington if possible, must have knowledge of historical trends, and of present conditions among the Indians, and between the Indians and the Federal government. If he has not thus enlarged his scope of study he cannot possibly lead the children in an efficient study of even this one group of people. Study of sources, excursions - everything that will enrich the teacher's background is essential before the plan can be headed up definitely toward outcomes.

Likewise, he must know the children - their abilities, interests, and previous experience. With knowledge of the materials and the children well in hand, than the teacher is ready with some definiteness to select, first the principles which the experience will help develop, and then the habits and skills which it will help form. Little by little the materials fall into place. The process is one of

selection in the light of the contribution each element will make to the outcomes desired. The final step remains: Given, (1) children of certain aptitudes, interests, and experiences, how can the materials best be used to gain the outcomes for the particular children to be taught? (2) the outcomes desired, (3) the materials available. Certain guiding educational principles give the clue. Skill in their use is slowly acquired through much patient thought. That learning is essentially an active process, and that it proceeds best when the one taught desires to learn, are basic. With such principles in mind and others which have meaning to him, the teacher blocks out a series of activities through which the outcomes are likely to be reached. The first big planning is complete.

Some such planning by the student is done prior to his student-teaching experience as described in Chapter II. The steps will not be repeated here, but attention is once again called, because of its important bearing upon the understanding of the principles upon which the program of the school rests, to the essentially cooperative character of the work. Students, training-teachers, and subject matter specialists work together to produce the best possible plan of work for the children in the training centers.

The big planning complete, there remains decision as to the best way to begin. Here, the children's experiences and interests are the best guides. The beginning to be effective should, above all things, be simple. No long-drawn-out "motivation", no circumlocution leads, but just a straightforward beginning is best. In the beginning of a study of jungle life in the third grade, the teacher need not beat around the bush getting the children to "purpose" to study jungle life. Exposure to good pictures, or to such movies as "Trader Horn", to detailed reading material in texts and references at the children's reading level - might become a starting point. If a child's questions have been the incentive for the group effort, the starting point is obvious.

III. Day-by-Day Planning

The nature of the teaching itself depends at any given time upon a commonsense decision as to the best means for attaining an end. Many analyses of teaching have been made into such types as the socialized recitation, the drill lesson, the appreciation lesson, the study lesson, the lecture, the discussion, etc. Sometimes an exercise is predominantly one or another of these types. At times, even, it may represent a pure type. Still more often it cross sections several types. There is some value in thinking of teaching in such types, but it should be remembered that th classification is arbitrary and logical, and made from the point of view of the external process rather than from the inner changes to be made in children. It is desirable that a teacher should learn - (1) the techniques of handling a discussion, (2) of directing study, (3) of conducting drill. Basic to the mastery of such techniques is (4) the ability to note children's responses, (5) to know when to give and when to withhold held, and (6) how to cause children to want to learn. Certainly in the beginning, the attention of the student-teacher should be centered upon these. His skills will become refined later, but even with the most able students not much more than a beginning can be made in such refinement of technique.

Having started his unit of instruction, from the notes he has taken the student checks his progress against the outcomes he had planned. He has noted responses of several children, perhaps, who need special direction; he has noted an unexpected turn that the exercise took. Such noted help him in his planning for the next day. Instead of working as before from a long-distance point of view, he now works at a short distance. Because of his notes his outcomes are more specific. Children's names figure conspicuously, because his experience with the children makes possible modifications in his planning to suit the needs of individuals. Other materials must be found the need of which was not anticipated in the beginning. Essentially the same process is gone through as in the beginning, the difference being purely one of degree.

IV. Checking and Recording Results of Teaching

Finally, when the outcomes are approximately attained, new outcomes need to be set and new planning in the large started once again. At this point, the notes taken from day to day are gathered and analyzed in order to check progress.

V. Teaching Special Subjects

There has been no attempt in this chapter to go into details of special adaptations of teaching to various subject matter fields. These the student gains in his professionalized subject matter courses. The study which he makes of his notes from these courses will give him the details which it has been impossible and unnecessary to give here. These notes should be used by training-teachers and student-teachers in conference.

VI. Coordinating a Major Unit With Other Subjects or Program

In Chapter II, mention was made of the fact that the work of the classroom may be considered as falling into two divisions - a major activity occupying, as it were, the center of interest for the time being and other activities which may be unrelated to the first. A further word needs to be said here with reference to the point of view of teaching that such division of the work implies. Briefly, it is held that at any time in the school life of an elementary child, it is best that his attention be focussed primarily upon some big interest. For instance, if a sixth grade is occupied with the study of the Middle Ages, the period itself is so rich in interest and is so many-sided so far as subject matter is concerned, that it is best not to dissipate energies and distract attention by carrying another unit of instruction at the same time. Art, music, and English are as much involved in such a study as is history. Hence, these subjects should be used as contributory to the principles, skills, and habits which the unit will de-

velop. On the other hand, there is a certain orderly progression in learning which is essential if children are to gain mastery over those tools which will make them effective in society as it is constituted today. Therefore, the day's work includes specially scheduled times when skill in the use of the tools of learning - spelling, language forms, arithmetic, reading, penmanship - is developed. The teaching of most of these rests today upon psychological study. Knowledge of their psychological foundations and the beginning of skill in their application are essential outcomes of student teaching.

To summarize, these should be:

1. A growing appreciation of and power to apply principles
2. Some ability in planning both with a long view and a short
3. The appreciation of teaching as essentially a process where one causes another to want to learn and to guide him in such learning
4. Some ability in rousing the desire to learn in children
5. Some ability in guiding children in learning
6. The firmly established habit of recording accurately and of analyzing records as a basis for further planning.
7. Some skill in note-taking as part of teaching
8. An appreciation of the fact that only a beginning has been made in the art of teaching and that the refinement of his techniques lies in the future.

Suggestions to Students

1. Study the lists of principles or fundamental conceptions in the physical sciences and the social studies compiled by Craig and Billings respectively. Note the extent to which they have meaning for you.
2. Study the Record of a Kindergarten Boat and the analysis of the Record; compare with this the analysis you have made of your work.
3. Study the plan of the unit on the Early Life of the Egyptians. (To be found in the Library) Are the materials and the activities essential for the attainment of the outcomes? Use the same criterion in evaluating your own units.

4. Read "A Plan for the Closer Coordination of Professionalized Subject Matter and Student-Teaching in a Normal School", Reported by the Faculty of the Maryland State Normal School at Towson. Educational Administration and Supervision, April 1930, pp. 257-286.

5. Check yourself upon mastery of the material contained in and touched by your unit.

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CHAPTER VII

Caring for Routine

There are certain mechanical matters that need attention in the classroom just as there are in the home. Two principles are proposed to the student to guide him in handling such matters:

1. Children should share the responsibility of caring for routine
2. Everything of a mechanical nature should be routinized as far as possible

The training teachers of the campus elementary school have listed such mechanical matters as follows:

I. Clerical Work

1. Keeping a roll book
2. Making out reports to be sent to parents
3. Making duplicate reports for the office records
4. Making an inventory of materials and supplies in the room
5. Suplicating a requisition
6. Checking children's health records
7. Checking children's book lists
8. Entering information on record cards required by the state
9. Entering test results on the record cards kept in the office files
10. Filing children's work in the folders in the filing case
11. Keeping a record of the results of informal objective tests made by the students and given in the classroom
12. Filing illustrative material, booklets, folders, clippings, etc.
13. Taking notes on the material presented by the Training Teacher in the conference periods
14. Listing questions asked by children

II. Room Housekeeping

1. Appointing committees of children to care for the materials and supplies, the flowers, ventilation, lighting, dusting, blackboards, etc.

2. Keeping the floors free of scraps of paper, etc.

3. Keeping the room cupboard in order

4. Caring for the furniture in the room

5. Keeping materials in order

6. Arranging bulletin boards and display spaces in good taste

7. Adjusting the temperature of the room

8. Keeping bookshelves and tables in good order

9. Having frequent short periods (15 - 20 minutes) of intensive house-cleaning

10. Children keeping their desks in order

11. Frequently changing displays of work

12. Keeping a clean, attractive, artistic room.

The list represents the things of a more or less mechanical nature that require attention in our campus elementary school. It is not complete nor would it represent the needs of all classrooms. The items, however, will serve as types for discussion. Your Normal School courses in health and hygiene should be constantly put to practice.

The first principle that children should share, the responsibility of caring for routine, presents two questions:

1. For what types of routine should they share responsibility?

2. How can their sharing such responsibility be made of educational value?

Obviously, children should be responsible only for doing those things which they are capable of learning to do well. Hence, the responsibilities children take vary with their age. Responsibilities involving clerical work, for example, ought not to be carried to any great extent by children to whom writing is still a slow and laborius process.

Again, children should not be asked to assume responsibilities for the group which each child had better assume for himself. This principle is

frequently violated by having one child remove scrap material from the floor which has been dropped carelessly by other children. Such type of service does not foster good personal habits nor group relationships.

Children should not assume responsibility for reports or records for which the teacher is responsible to administrative or supervisory officers. Often children can assist in such work, but the final form of any official statement should be made by the teacher. Children should be led to see the ethics involved in the official relationships here which makes teacher responsibility a necessity.

Applying the three negative tests proposed to the campus elementary school list, children would not take responsibility for items I 1, 2, 6, 8, 9, 11 while items 13 and 14 are inherent in the student-teacher's work at the center. With reference to item II, however, children should keep a record of attendance and in the intermediate grades summarize absences, latenesses and other data called for. They can be appointed fire marshals; health wardens; and members of safety councils. They should feel responsibility about the conditions which are recorded and be made aware of the class record in such matters. The responsibility for the roll book as part of the official record of the school, however, belongs to the teacher. The student-teacher should master its techniques.

As to Item I 2, it goes without saying that reports to parents are confidential, to be discussed only by the parents, the child, and the teacher. The child should, ordinarily, share the making of his report with the teacher. To be able to send to parents reports which will gain their active cooperation is a matter of special study for the student. Exception, indeed, might be taken to the item being included under routine matters.

All matters involving test records, health records, such as Items I 6, 8, 9, and 11 form part of the routine which the student-teacher needs to master and for which he must assume responsibility. They, too, form part of an official record and as such must be carried out by the teacher.

Responsibility for Items I 3, 4, and 7 may well be shared by children. If the children are able to do it, the making of duplicate reports checked against the original offers good training in accuracy in clerical matters. At the same time, the children are really sharing in important work that needs to be done.

Item I 10 is one of peculiar value to children. They should file their own work in their folders and study the story the folder tells. The student-teacher should try to develop all possible skill in training children to file such material in a profitable way.

Item I 12 is one in which children should be taught to take responsibility. The habit of filing materials in an orderly fashion is one of the best tools for work. During all of a student's pre-service period of training he should systematically collect and file materials for teaching. During his student-teaching period he should teach children to do the same through having them share the responsibility of filing materials in the classroom.

Responsibility for all of the items under II should be shared by children. In the school as in the home children should be taught from the beginning to share in the work of the group. There is a give and take to such sharing that is a necessary part of everybody's education. The earlier it is begun, the better.

The second question, "How the sharing of responsibility for routine can be made of educative value", has been partially answered in the discussion of the first question. A few further references to the list may help to clarify the matter. Adjusting the temperature of the room can be handled so that all children will have the opportunity of working with the problem of heating in a way that will be of practical value to them. Arranging bulletin boards carries with it many opportunities for the development of principles of orderly and artistic arrangement. The value to a child of filing his own work and of filing clippings, illustrative materials, etc., has been indicated. The more prosaic housekeeping

duties like dusting, keeping cupboards in order, etc., can be taught so well that habits of orderliness will become automatic.

The second big principle; that of routinizing everything possible of a mechanical nature, implies the release of the mind from bothersome detail in order that more attention can be given to work requiring higher thought. The ideal of efficiency has its place. Moreover, one's attitude toward detail, toward the way he performs his simple tasks is reflected in the thinking he does in bigger problems. It is the duty of a teacher so to arrange the routine of the classroom that he and the children alike will be free to think to their fullest capacity.

Routinization is best attained through clear allocation of duties and a definite time for their performance. The first days at the beginning of the school year offer the best opportunity for placing the management of the classroom upon an efficient, and at the same time, democratic basis. The teacher needs to decide what matters will need attention and the extent to which it is wise to throw responsibilities for their performance upon the children; what he will do ahead of time; what he will not do in order that the children may take their part from the beginning.

The allocation of duties is, of course, only the beginning. The change of duties with reference to the needs of individual children requires thought. Having children persist after the first enthusiasm dies down requires skill. Frequent checking on progress, and group appraisal are essential. Definite periods for carrying out responsibilities are likewise necessary. Techniques are involved which need thought and experience for their mastery.

The student should carry certain outcomes from his experience in handling routine at the training center: First, the principles suggested for the management of routine should have some meaning for him through his having attempted to apply them in making decisions with reference to routine. Second, his own

habits of collecting and filing of material should be deepened. Third, he should have some skill in helping children to want to take responsibility and to persist in carrying it.

Suggestions to Students

1. Study your system of filing materials of instruction. Can you improve it?

2. List all the routine activities carried on in your classroom. Compare it with the list in this chapter.

3. Check the list of routine activities in your room indicating who carries the responsibility for each. Are you satisfied with the allocation?

4. Critically analyze your management of routine in the light of the principles set forth in this chapter.

5. Study the material, Beginning School.[1] Which of the activities are of educational value? Which of the routine matters performed by the teacher should have been carried by the children? Are there any unnecessary items in the list?

References

[1]Beginning School. Mimeographed material, Maryland State Normal School at Towson, 1929

CHAPTER VIII

Participation in School Activities

While the classroom is the focus of the teacher's attention, his work must extend to the activities of the entire school and the community of which he is part. Otherwise, he cannot be effective in the classroom. A classroom cannot exist in isolation anymore than can an individual. Hence, a teacher's training should include preparation to participate intelligently in school and community activities.

What are the school activities in which a student should be trained to participate? In so far as is possible, he should be trained in every type of school activity in which he will later participate. Before-school activities and a recess and playground program are very important for the student teacher to practice with. Such training has obviously the limitations in quantity that all other training has in the short period of student-teaching. Likewise, certain seasonal activities will be omitted according as the student-teacher is assigned in one or another of the three student-teaching terms. Therefore, it is important as in all of the other training that emphasis be placed upon the development of principles applicable to the situations which the student does not meet in training.

There are certain school responsibilities, however, which every teacher must assume, and in which any school situation offers opportunity for training. Some of these are:

1. Faculty meetings
2. Curricular activities
3. Social and professional contacts with the faculty
4. Routine matters peculiar to any particular school

The best way for a student to learn what is expected of a teacher in a faculty meeting is to attend the faculty meetings of the school in which he is training. Of course, this assumes well-managed, well-conducted faculty meetings.

The responsibility for these rests upon the principal of the school. One of the most effective means of participating in the training of teachers that the principal of a school has is the faculty meeting. If the student attends faculty meetings with the training-teacher, later discussion of these meetings between them will help him interpret the procedure and form standards of his own for participating in them in the future. There is no reason why, if the occasion demands it, and the principal invites it, that a student should not participate in a faculty meeting. His part is that of a transient member of the faculty whose contributions to the professional life of the school are limited but to him, personally, great benefits may accrue from attendance at such meetings.

At the normal school the students enjoy a varied program of curricular activities aiming to satisfy the needs for expression and recreation of students of varied interests. These extra-curricular activities of the student at the normal school should carry over into his work with children. If his interests and abilities coincide with the extra-curricular activities of the school, he should work with the leaders of those activities as an assistant. He should also be encouraged to contribute any interests of his own to the development of other extra-curricular activities in the school.

How to become an effective member of any new group is a problem worthy of more thought than is usually given to it. One often loses sight of the fact that until a student enters his student-teaching period, he has had no other relationship with a faculty than that of the student-faculty relationship. When he goes into an elementary school for training, he still continues in his student-faculty relationship, but at the same time with his assumption of teaching responsibilities he makes a beginning in faculty-faculty relationships. It is important that at the beginning true standards of professional ethics should be set up. Certainly the ideals of friendly, impersonal relationships among faculty members, of keeping free of cliques and gossip should be formed. Here again the

responsibility rests not only upon the training teacher but upon the entire faculty of the school. "Never say anything about a colleague, or a child, or a parent that you have not said first to the person concerned" - is a good principle to follow. It shows an ability to get on with people in the right way.

Every school according to its own peculiar conditions develops certain ways of handling routine. Bulletin board notices, distributions of supplies, attendance, the machinery of reporting attendance, etc., are handled with variations in different schools. Again, it is important that these routine matters be well handled in order that a student may develop standards. He should participate in these routine affairs, and should be trained to do them so that he will help the machinery of the school run more smoothly. Such ideals should be established.

The outcomes that student-teaching should leave with the student with reference to participating in school activities may be summarized as follows:

1. The assumption of his new social relationship as a member of a faculty with self-respect, courtesy and responsibility
2. The desire to give of his own particular interests, and abilities to the extra-curricular life of a school
3. Knowledge of how to participate effectively in a faculty meeting
4. Beginning of the formation of the habit of attending to all school routine affairs in a way that will help the machinery of the school run smoothly

Study of the problem of a student's preparation for participation in school activities leaves one impressed with the important role that is played by the principal and the faculty of the school. What the student carries away from his training as standards of school spirit, professional relationships, faculty meetings, extra-curricular activities, handling of routine, he gets in the main from the school in which he has his training and these are his most vivid patterns. The responsibility of the normal school and the cooperating school systems in the selection of the best possible schools for such training is, indeed, great.

Suggestions for Student Teaching

1. Take notes during a faculty meeting. Discuss them with your training-teacher.
2. Make note in your diary of your participation in the routine of the school.
3. Keep a record in your diary of your participation in the extra-curricular activities of the school.

CHAPTER IX

Participation in Community Activities

It has been thirty years since Dewey wrote School and Society. The implications of the title are not yet generally grasped, and certainly its ideal is not realized. That there is some sort of interrelationship between the two will, however, be granted by almost anyone who is interested in social questions. That society influences the school is apparent. The demands of industry affect the curriculum; modern inventions change its equipment. That the school should affect society is the hope of the educator. Somehow by following the best thought that can be mustered and by working tirelessly, he hopes that such changes will be made in children that they will be able to mold a better civilization than the present. Efforts toward that end have been for the most part confined to individuals or small groups, for there has been little attempt either to formulate a national aim or to plan a national attack upon our educational problems. The assumption back of our reluctance to commit ourselves to anything that seems to savor or centralization in education, even in aim, is the idea that if each individual gain the thing that is best for him, it will be inevitable that society will shape itself in a way satisfactory to the individuals that compose it. As against this assumption, there is the spectacle of Soviet Russia launched upon its colossal experiment of revolutionizing a social order through a thorough educational plan affecting every individual within its borders. Two diametrically opposite points of view are exemplified as to the relation of the individual to society and of education to government in the American and the Russian progress. The student needs to think of the principles involved and to try to come eventually to a conclusion of his own as to the relative soundness of the two methods.

Though the consciousness of a national educational aim may be lacking, though the machinery of education may be inefficient in many school organizations

throughout our country, and though its purposes may be narrowly individualistic, there is a gripping movement stirring among the people themselves for a better education. School and society in the broadest and most democratic use of the terms are united in the Parent-Teacher movement. Anyone who attended the meeting of the Baltimore County Parent-Teacher Association last spring would have felt forces at work that could not help but make for progress. The occasion was the presentation of the results of the survey of high school education in Baltimore County that had just been completed by Professor Judd. The audience listened with absorbed attention to Professor Judd's analysis of conditions and recommendations. The applause at the end was hearty and genuine. After the report, a business meeting was carried on with correct parliamentary procedure. There were two committee reports - one on health and one on libraries - which showed the kind of achievement that only is possible when a school and a community work together.

The meeting just sketched was county-wide composed of representatives of the many little associations attached to individual schools in the county. The vigorous accomplishment of the large meeting could never have been possible without the work of these little associations. The little associations would not exist without the leadership of the teacher. In this local leadership lies the teacher's opportunity for bringing the school and society together.

It is frequently said by those engaged in social welfare that hope lies in the young; that it is futile to expend energy upon the older generation. Of course it is difficult to make changes in those of mature years, but the older generation, if it finds the right leadership will join with the school in working for the welfare of the younger generation. Any teacher working in any community can bring to pass that fellowship with parents that can come only when individuals are working together for a great purpose.

How is such fellowship brought to pass? By simple friendliness. The school doors should be open to parents. They should find warmth of welcome when

they come. The teacher should enter into their neighborhood recreation and give of himself to them. Parents should be encouraged to give of their knowledge to the children. The lumber dealer in his yard can give the children a familiarity with wood and, often, with the romance of the woods that the teacher cannot. The little foreign mother can give the children a bit of old world skill in one of the lovely peasant crafts that again the teacher cannot give. The teacher drawing a group of mothers about him can read and study with them so that they gain new insight into the lives and needs of their children.

Again, how important it is that the student should be sent for his training to a school where the principal and the teachers are sensitive to the power that lies in school-community relationships! It is from the school-community spirit that they have developed, and from the examples of contacts with parents that they give that the student-teacher will derive the standards which will guide him in his future school-community relationships. The outcomes should be: 1. A realization that without the hearty cooperation of parents, the efforts of the teacher are almost futile; 2. That the teacher should at all time maintain friendly relations with parents; 3. That he should utilize the resources of parents in teaching the children; 4. That he should through his professional training serve as a guide to parents in their study of the nature and needs of childhood.

Suggestions to Students

1. Read Dewey's School and Society and one of the other references given below.
2. Familiarize yourself with the materials sent out by the Maryland and the Delaware Parent-Teacher Associations.
3. Write an account of a parent-teacher meeting you have attended.
4. Make note in your record book of all the community contacts you experience
5. Make note of the extent to which parents have participated in the life of your classroom.

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CHAPTER X

Developing Fitness for Teaching

It is debatable whether or not the development of fitness for teaching should be included as a separate item in the classification of a teacher's work. If the other five items are interpreted broadly and carried on conscientiously, fitness for teaching is an inevitable outcome. As such it is a result, the ultimate end to be attained through years of teaching experience. Certainly, a period of student-teaching that leaves the young teacher without the impulse to work continuously for his greater fitness for teaching has failed. The importance of the desire for growth cannot be questioned. Because all the future professional life of the student is dependent upon the attitude he takes from his training toward what constitutes his fitness for teaching the question is treated separately.

The question of what constitutes fitness for teaching is linked with the subtle problem of personality. The term personality is so vague and its interpretation so influenced by individual bias that it is almost impossible for any group to come to a common understanding about it. There is no other problem in the whole teacher-training situation that one approaches with more hesitancy and with more inadequacy. But when one considers the fact that many students fail in teaching who are in the higher ranges of intelligence and scholarship it is very evident that some other qualities of personality are also potent factors in teaching success. Of course this is no more true of teaching than of any other vocation. Given approximately the same degree of intelligence and scholarship in any group of individuals some other qualities are the determinants of who will succeed and who fail as a teacher. After all, the development of one's self as a person is basic to developing one's self as a doctor, a secretary, or a teacher.

To be a great teacher one must be, first of all, a great person. One is the combination of his original nature and his experience. One cannot do much to

[illegible]

[illegible]

alter original nature, but one can manage to have experiences which will bring out the best in his nature. Every person has power of some kind. To find what power one has and then get the experiences that will develop that power into achievement for one's own happiness and for the happiness of mankind is indeed no small task.

There may be traits of personality which are peculiarly necessary in teaching but if one examines lists of such traits he is immediately impressed with the fact that the same list might be offered in any other profession. It is not the possession of traits in isolation that matters. The thing that does matter is the kind of pattern made by the traits in combinations. Individuals of all possible combinations of traits resulting in many and varied personalities are needed as teachers. Some may have merriment as a dominant note, some tranquility, some enthusiasm, some serenity, some vigor, some gentleness. There are those who by sheer vitality spur others on to achievement; others in a quiet way touch deep and hidden impulses and desires in their students, leading them on to self-realization. All kinds of teaching personalities are needed for all kinds of children.

Accepting the foregoing, the problem of developing student fitness for teaching becomes: How can the natural aptitudes of the student be revealed to him? How can he be guided into experiences which will develop his possibilities? These are, in the last analysis, the universal problem of all types of education.

The whole program of the normal school has been planned with the purpose of the individual development of the student in mind. Through the advisory system, each student finds some faculty member who will give him particular guidance. The professionalized subject matter courses broaden his horizon and bring him deep experiences. The rich array of extra-curricular activities offers the student opportunities for developing his particular talents. The assembly program brings him contacts with great personalities from all over the world. Above all, the unstinting way in which the faculty give of their time is conferences with stu-

dents has its effect upon the development of individual personality.

Potent as are these factors in student development, there is a peculiar quality to the student-teaching experience that makes it of particular value in revealing the student to himself. Here, for the first time, he assumes almost full responsibility in the profession he has chosen. He is in action in the classroom. Traits show - strengths and weaknesses - that he, himself, did not know he possessed. Now is the time if ever that he needs to look upon himself impersonally, to analyze the causes of his failure and to develop his strengths.

The part that the training-teacher plays is of vital importance. Usually, there is no member of the faculty with whom the student has closer contacts than with the training-teacher. The two work together with a group of children. Nothing can bring people closer together than a group of children as their common problem. A free, frank, friendly attitude on the part of each is desirable, the older teacher giving to the younger of his richer experiences and guidance. The situation is great in its possibilities for development.

In considering the development of his fitness for teaching the student should extract from his teaching experience: 1. A truer knowledge of his possibilities; 2. A desire to grow more fit for teaching; 3. A plan for his own growth. If these three outcomes result, the student will indeed have brought success out of his experiences.

Suggestions to Students

1. Read bibliographies and see dramas of great personalities. Note the interests and experiences these have had. Note the forces that seemed most potent in shaping their lives.

CHAPTER XI

Principles as Outcomes

The six preceding chapters have discussed in more or less detail the six main divisions of the teacher's work It has been said repeatedly that in any of these, only a beginning can be made in the formation of habits or the development of skills. Equally often, the consequent importance of the understanding of the principles behind the activity has been emphasized. It remains to give some indication of the nature of the principles which can thus serve as guides.

The selection of the principles proposed in this chapter is truly the product of group thinking. The principles were selected as follows: The county training-teachers working in committees proposed a set of principles; the city training-teachers did likewise; the campus training-teachers studied the first two lists and suggested modifications; the directors and supervisors of training finally brought the work of the three groups together into the following nine principles which seemed to them to express the thought of the three groups:

1. Every child is entitled to the experience of a rich and varied environment with ample opportunity for initiative and self-expression.
2. A child should be guided or helped only at the point where he is unable to go forward independently, or where he is facing discouragement, for teaching is effective only to the extent that children are taught to feel their own needs, develop them, and measure their own growth.
3. "Growth comprises changes which lead to the fuller satisfaction of human wants; as a child lives, his experiences should be constantly recognized and reintegrated, so that his wants become increasingly those which, by promoting the welfare of others, rebound to satisfy his own desires."[1]
4. "Concomitant learnings are always present. Every learning situation, no matter how insignificant or important its primary task may be, is fraught

[1]Thorndike and Gates. Elementary Principles of Education.

with possibilities for developing both desirable and undesirable information, attitudes, habits, techniques, or appreciations or concomitants."[1]

5. Some learning takes place best when the individual works alone; some, when he works as the member of a group. Opportunity for both should be given according as one or the other type is better fitted to the nature of the task.
6. Learning involves mental and physical activities and proceeds best when there is purposing and planning by the learner and opportunity for him to measure his own results.
7. No two children are alike; therefore, the teacher must plan for the needs and development of the abilities of individual pupils.
8. Activities are valuable to the extent that they stimulate and aid further desirable learnings or further activities.
9. Thought, feeling, and action need to be brought into harmony if an integrated personality is to result.

This may or may not be the wisest selection of principles. It simply re-represents the best thought of the group at the time that the selection was made. No doubt, even now the group would make some modifications in the principles as they stand. A permanent set of principles is certainly not the aim. Instead, if attempt at application of these principles is constantly made by all concerned with the training of the students, and if successive groups of students check their plans and their procedures against them, their weaknesses and their inadequacies will be disclosed. Critical evaluation of them by many minds will result in increasing soundness of thought and clarity of expression. They are offered here as a beginning only; as material for discussion; as a tentative expression of an educational philosophy.

[1]Ibid

Principles are abstractions. They have value to the individual only when their expression brings to consciousness a wealth of imagery. They are barren, meaningless things unless they have been evolved out of much experience. At best, in two years, the experience out of which the student evolves principles of education is slight. The only hope that principles will mean anything to him at all lies in keeping their number small and constantly applying them under many different conditions.

In the realization of this, the course Introduction to Teaching starts the formation of these principles upon a concrete basis. Most of the students at the end of the course are not able to translate their observations in the classroom, the discussion of that observation, and the thought gained from their reading into anything more than a crude and fragmentary expression of principle. Again and again they meet the same principles in other courses. In student-teaching, when they find that they must act over fairly long consecutive period of time upon some firm basis, the principles gain rapidly in meaning for them. Finally,in the course, Modern Trends in Education and their Historic Origins, really a selective course in History and Principles of Education, reflection upon their experiences brings greater integration of principle.

As outcomes of student-teaching, as the most important outcomes, the student should:

1. Appreciate the need of a guiding body of principles
2. Have formed the habit of making decisions both in planning and in the activities of the classroom upon the basis of principle
3. Have selected certain principles either from among those listed here or from his reading, or through his own interpretation of his experiences which form the beginning of his own individual philosophy of education.
4. Be able to distinguish between routinization of habits and skills in class management and lesson planning, and the application of a principle

or the children's discovery of a principle.

Suggestions to Students

1. Read Thorndike and Gates: Elementary Principles of Education
2. Check carefully your own use of principle
3. Read the bulletin, An Introduction to Teaching. Compare your reaction to it now with that of your reaction as a junior student
4. Formulate in your own words your educational philosophy. Write it in your record book. Rewrite it from time to time as your thinking in terms of principle gains strength and clearness.

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CHAPTER XII

Evaluation of Student-Teaching

Student teaching needs to be evaluated. It needs, furthermore, to be rated definitely on the letter scale of the seven steps, - A, B, C, C+ , C-, D, F, used for all rating at the normal school. That student-teaching should be evaluated would be granted by any one. A student should know very clearly where his work is strong and where weak in order that he may work toward its improvement. Yet everybody who has attempted to rate a group of students typifying every sort of personality and whose teaching has been done under conditions carying greatly in difficulty knows how baffling the task is. Two measures have been taken that, it is believed, assure fairness of rating to the student as well as make an evaluation of his work that is of worth to him:

1. Many anslyses of his work are made by different visiting members of the Normal School staff.
2. All analyses are based upon factual evidence

As to the multitude of analyses made, first the training teachers, two in number, are concerned daily with the study of the student teacher's work and its evaluation. Members of the faculty who have taught the student in the term prior to his student-teaching and, hence, have worked with him in his preparation for student-teaching, visit him at work. Finally the supervisors and directors of practice are in constant touch with the training centers. All these persons assist in the analysis of the student's work to the end that he may be given as much productive guidance as possible. From the factual evidence submitted by all who have visited the student and from the rating each has made of the particular work he has seen, the director of training gives the final rating.

In analyzing the work, supervisors are asked to make a brief summary of what was seen, to indicate the good points and the poor points in terms of actual occurrence, and to note the suggestions made at the conference with the student.

It can readily be seen that such records made by many supervisors and discussed with the student cannot help but reveal his needs to him and assist him in his growth.

The evaluation of the student's work is made primarily in terms of his ability to apply such educational principles as those outlined in Chapter XI and the degree to which he gives evidence of attaining the outcomes indicated in the chapters concerned with the six divisions of the work of the teacher. These are the primary outcomes desired, and the student's work will be evaluated accordingly.

For convenience these will be summarized here:

I. Studying Children
   Does the student observe children carefully and keep systematic records of his observations?

II. Planning, Teaching, and Recording
   Does the student show appreciation of and the power to apply principle?
   What ability has he in planning:
      In the large?
      In the daily plan?
   Can he rouse the desire to learn in others?
   To what extent can he guide children in learning?
   Is he developing the habit of recording accurately and of analyzing records as a basis for further planning?
   What skill has he developed in note-taking as a technique of teaching?

III. Caring for Routine
   To what extent does the student have the cooperation of children in managing routine?
   Has he routinized mechanical matters to a satisfactory degree?
   What materials of his own has he collected? How well are they filed?

IV. Participation in School Activities
   Does the student maintain courteous and responsible faculty relationships?
   Does he enter into the extra-curricular life of the school?
   Does he show understanding of the teacher's part at a faculty meeting?
   Does he cooperate effectively in school routine?

V. Participation in Community Activities
   Has the student shown ability to make satisfactory contacts with parents?
   Does he indicate the disposition and ability to assume community leadership?

VI. Developing Personal Fitness for Teaching
Is the student intelligently aware of his own professional needs?
Does he show desire for further development?

In order to assist further in the evaluation of the work, a series of seven forms has been developed for purposes of recording data about each student's teaching experience. All are concerned with the evaluation of a student's work and are planned to furnish the student with an instrument of self-evaluation. Brief descriptions and copies of the forms follow:

Form 1 (purple). Materials Available for Student Teaching. On this sheet titles of the units prepared before going to the training center are entered by the student. These sheets are made out in triplicate by the student. The student keeps one and gives one to each of the two training teachers. At the end of the student-teaching term comments and critical evaluation of the way the unit worked out in practice are entered by the student and the training teacher. The forms are then given to the director of training who discusses their contents with the professionalized subject matter instructors concerned.

Form 2 (yellow). Observation of Student Teaching Record. This form is used by the student and all who observe him teach. It is meant to furnish a record of a single teaching exercise. It is from the accumulation of many of these records that a final summary of student-teaching progress is made. No expression of opinion as to general worth except as such opinion is substantiated by evidence is given on these reports. The student will frequently analyze his teaching needs through study of his reports, with those who supervise his work. Since such analyses is always made in terms of principle, they do much to help the student develop a body of principles which he is able to apply.

Form 3 (gray). Student's Efficiency Record. This record is made by the training teacher. Since each student has teaching experiences in two centers,

there will be two such records. Again, these records are made in terms of evidence, evidence of fitness for or against teaching. What is recorded on these sheets summarizes the observations made by the training teacher.

Form 4 (blue). Record of Student Teaching Activities. It is highly desirable that the second student-teaching experience should build upon the first; that is, that the whole student-teaching experience should be continuous. Processes should not be emphasized in the second experience which have reached the point of mastery in the first. The time is too short. Therefore, the first training teacher sends to the second an account of the experiences the student has had with her, in order that there be as little waste motion as possible.

Form 5 (pink). Record of Student Correctives. Very frequently limitations are shown during student-teaching which have escaped notice both by the student and the instructors at the normal school. The practical demands of teaching children bring all the faculties of a student into play. Hence, weaknesses as well as strengths are shown as never before. Where weaknesses occur - faulty English, poor posture, poor blackboard writing, for example - note is made of such deficiencies, the student told, and the sheet recording the deficiencies sent to the normal school instructor most concerned. The instructor helps the student overcome the difficulty and reports results to the director of training.

Form 6 (white). Final Student-Teaching Report by Director of Student Teaching. From all the data gradually accumulated, the director of student-teaching makes her final estimate. Here, of necessity, judgment does enter in, but it is judgment substantiated in every case by evidence offered by many observers and always in terms of fact.

Form 7 (white). Summary of Student Records Sent to County or City Departments of Education. Form 7 includes in addition to the summary of the student

teacher's record, a summary of the main features of all the rest of his records at the normal school. It attempts to show the supervisor in the field how far the normal school was able to take the student in his preparation for teaching, in order that they may continue the preparation from the point where the work at the normal school stopped.

Of course, all of a student's records are open to him at any time. The student is urged to consult his records and read for himself the history he is making. He is urged never to let a comment with which he does not agree go unchallenged. The records are made to aid the student in becoming the best possible teacher of children. It is hoped that he will use them for that purpose.

Suggestions to Students

1. Study the various forms used for student-teaching. Use them for purposes of self-evaluation.
2. Assign yourself a rating. Ask other students to rate you. Discuss the results.

The MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at TOWSON

MATERIALS AVAILABLE FOR STUDENT TEACHING

Teaching III
Form 1

Date..... Name .....

Term..... Section .....

UNITS OF WORK

Topic	Illustrative Material*	Grade	Instructor with Whom Prepared

What do you think that you are most ready to teach?

.....

.....

.....

.....

* Indicate whether material includes pictures, pamphlets, commercial exhibits, etc.

(over)

The MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at TOWSON

OBSERVATION OF STUDENT TEACHING RECORD

Teaching III
Form 2

N. B.: Observers will report each activity observed on separate sheet.

Date _____

Time (number of minutes) _____

School _____ Grade _____ Teacher of Practice _____

Student Teacher observed _____

Activity observed (indicate subject) _____

Outline of activity:

Good Teaching Acts	Poor Teaching Acts

Suggestions:

Rating _____

Signed _____

The MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at TOWSON

STUDENT'S EFFICIENCY RECORD

Teaching III
Form 3

Student Teacher_____ Term _____ 1st or 2nd half_____ Year_____

Teacher of Practice_____ School _____ Grade _____

Times absent_____ Causes_____

Times tardy_____ Causes_____

Rating (See IV)_____

Notes: (1) Make one copy for each student at the end of each six weeks and forward immediately to the director of student teaching.

(2) In making out this report, reference to "Observation of Student Teaching Record" (Form 2) will be of assistance.

(3) Please use ink.

I. Give all possible evidence of the student's fitness for teaching. (Include personal characteristics)

II. Give all possible evidence against the student's fitness for teaching. (Include personal charteristics)

III. The student has special aptitude in: (music, athletics, dealing with problems of children, etc.)

IV. Think of the most able student teacher you have known; think of the least able; think of the one most nearly average ability. Consider these types as having ratings of A, F, and C respectively. With these types in mind, rate the student you are now considering on the following scale:

F, D, C—, C, C plus, B, A

(Use back of sheet for further remarks)

The MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at TOWSON

RECORD OF STUDENT TEACHING ACTIVITIES

Teaching III
Form 4

Student Teacher.....Term.....1st or 2nd half.....Year.....

Teacher of Practice.....School .....Grade .....

Note: This is to be made in duplicate and sent to the director of student teaching. One copy will be forwarded to the teacher of practice with whom the student will next work.

I. The student has had experience in the following:

II. The student needs further experience, particularly in the following:

The MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at TOWSON

RECORD OF STUDENT CORRECTIVES

Teaching III
Form 5

Student.....

Needs correctives in.....

.....

.....

.....

Reported to.....

Reported by.....

Date.....

Report of Progress Made by Student

Date..... Signed.....

The MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at TOWSON

FINAL STUDENT TEACHING REPORT BY DIRECTOR OF STUDENT TEACHING

Teaching III
Form 6

Student teacher.....Term .....Year .....Final Rating.....

Times absent..... Causes:.....

Times tardy..... Causes:.....

1st Half	2nd Half
School:	School:
Grade:	Grade:
Teacher of Practice:	Teacher of Practice:
Rating:	Rating:
Special Subjects:	**Special Subjects:**
Subject:	Subject:
Instructor:	Instructor:
Rating:	Rating:
Subject:	Subject:
Instructor:	Instructor:
Rating:	Rating:
Subject:	Subject:
Instructor:	Instructor:
Rating:	Rating:

Remarks:

(Signed) .....
Director of Student Teaching

The MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at TOWSON

SUMMARY OF STUDENT RECORD SENT TO COUNTY OR CITY DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

Student ..... Address ..... Tel. .....
(Last Name) (First Name)

Date of Graduation ..... Course .....

SCHOLARSHIP RECORD (Until End of Term 2, Sr. Year):

Highest Subject Rating: Lowest Subject Rating: General Average:

EXTRA - CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES:

Student Participated In: Student Was Outstanding In:

JUNIOR PARTICIPATION RECORD:

School ..... Grade ..... Teacher ..... Rating .....

School ..... Grade ..... Teacher ..... Rating .....

Remarks: Final Rating .....

SENIOR STUDENT TEACHING RECORD:

School ..... Grade ..... Teacher ..... Rating .....

School ..... Grade ..... Teacher ..... Rating .....

Final Rating .....

Evidence of Student's Fitness for Teaching:

Evidence Against Student's Fitness for Teaching:

Student Showed Special Aptitude in:

Student Needs Further Supervisory Help Particularly in:

Recommendation of Director of Practice for Grade Placement: .....

Student's Choice of Grade ..... of School .....

CHAPTER XIII

The Relation of Pre-Service and In-Service Teaching

The pre-service and in-service education of a teacher are two parts of a continuous process. It is only through the closest articulation of the work of the normal school with the supervision in the field that any educational system can hope to be effective. Each needs to know what the other is doing. The normal school needs to work with the goals of the state and city educational systems in mind; the state and city administrations need to be familiar with the work of the normal school. Otherwise only waste of effort results.

In the normal school the state bulletins formulating goals in the various subject matter fields, the courses being developed by Montgomery, Washington and Allegany Counties, the Baltimore County Course of Study, and the Baltimore City courses of study are in constant use in the professionalized subject matter courses and in the training centers. The current annual reports of the state and city are studied in the course, Modern Trends in Education and their Historic Origins, in order that the students may become thoroughly familiar with the achievements, problems, and aims of the educational systems in which they will teach. Members of the faculty frequently attend supervisory conferences in the state and city, and at times, serve on committees for the revision of County and City courses of study.

Strong as is the bond between the school and the field resulting from the above practices, the peculiar strength of the articulation of the pre-service and the in-service education of the teacher is due in large measure to the strength of the supervisory systems of the state and city. With the special emphasis that each places upon helping the beginning teacher, the first years of actual teaching seem truly a continuation of the work of the normal school. The contacts between state and county supervisors and the training teachers - and the meetings of Baltimore City grade and subject supervisors and training teachers which give

opportunity for the discussion of the needs of the graduates as seen by the supervisors in the field, make for coordination of effort. The detailed records of the strengths and needs of individual students sent by the normal school to superintendents make it possible for each school system to take up the work of the education of the teacher at the point where the efforts of the normal school end.

What can the state and city administration expect of the normal school graduate?

It seems only fitting that some attempt should be made to summarize the outcomes that have been indicated in The Guide as expected achievements of those receiving the normal school diploma. Of course, any such statement of achievements must be interpreted with due consideration of the natural variations in individual ability. Granting such, a graduate of the normal school should, first of all, be able to and want to think. He will understand and use intelligently, prescriptions, patterns, and directions. He will desire to exercise his own thought power. He may know comparatively very little - he has had only two years of professional work - but he will have familiarity with sources of information and will have begun his own system of collecting, filing and using professional material. He will have a student's attitude. He will know something of his own limitations and will ask direct questions of his supervisor in his effort to get help. He will understand that he has made only a beginning in his preparation for teaching and will plan to go further. He may even be too eager to increase his education rapidly and may have to be urged not to carry a university course during his first year of teaching.

In the classroom he will be an observer of children, and a fairly good administrator of details. He will consider note-taking as an important technique of teaching. He will be familiar with the course of study and immediately, with it as a foundation, block off his year's work in large units. His daily plans will be

made upon the basis of the previous day's work. His teaching will probably be sadly lacking in finish of technique, but, though he may show only a little grasp of finished technique, he will realize its importance and try to gain it. In the meantime, he will struggle manfully to adjust his teaching to the principles he has developed. He will be happy at times over his successes, and at other times much discouraged. He will often need a professional friend.

If he finds himself in a large school he will be a cooperative person on the faculty; he will not gossip; he will not be a member of a clique; he will do unto others as he would have them do unto him; he will, by scrupulous attention to routine matters, help the machinery of the school run more smoothly. He will participate in faculty meetings, not obtrusively but professionally. He will throw his several talents into the extra-curricular activities of the school.

He will, if possible, live in the community in which he teaches. He will study the resources and needs of the neighborhood. He will make the life of the people his life. He will work actively in the parent-teacher association. Parents will find a welcome at his classroom door. He will use their talents in work with their children. He will be their educational leader.

Of course, no one person will embody all these virtues. Some will be long in this and short in that. Where the student needs help is known both by himself and the supervisor, for the normal school has tried in every way to make known to both the next step needed. Nor will all proceed in the same way to take the beginning step in teaching. Some will start in a merry way, some in a tranquil way, some with enthusiasm, some with serenity. Each according to his own personality will try to help others to self-realization.

Suggestions to Students

1. Study this chapter. Is it too optimistic?
2. Once again, study your own notes; study the records you have left at the Normal School. What is your next step?

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